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Occupational Stress Levels and Perceived Stressors of College Athletic Directors in the Midwest

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OCCUPATIONAL STRESS LEVELS AND PERCEIVED STRESSORS OF COLLEGE ATHLETIC DIRECTORS IN THE MIDWEST

(TITLE)

BY

JENNIFER R. VENZON

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ABSTRACT

Occupational Stress Levels and Perceived Stressors of College Athletic Directors in the Midwest

Jennifer R. Venzon

Increasing job responsibilities of athletic directors (ADs) may lead to higher occupational stress (OS) levels, and as a result, increased health risks. Identification of work stressors may help individuals to better prepare for their job requirements and cope with OS.

This study was designed to determine the effects of individual demographics on stress and to identify the perceived OS levels of ADs, their major stress-causing tasks and stressors. Surveys were sent to college athletic directors in the Midwest (N= 72); 76.4% of the surveys were received (n=55).

The sample reported high degrees of stress evident in their profession, but indicated low inhibition and quick recovery from OS. Firing was rated the greatest stressor, and affirmative action was rated the lowest. Women reported higher stress levels than men, and gender discrimination was a stressor for women but not for men. Divorced, widowed, or separated subjects had much higher stress levels than single

or married ADs. Similarly, Division III athletic directors reported higher stress levels and more stressors than Division I or Division II ADs. A similar study using a longitudinal design is recommended.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Sport administrators have traditionally been responsible for such job functions as budgeting, hiring, firing, public relations, and event management. The evolution of athletics over the past 20 years has required athletic directors (ADs) to continue these duties and also be accountable for emerging tasks like maintaining competitive programs, complying with gender equity and legislative regulations, and licensing and external funding. Inherent demands and increasing job responsibilities of contemporary sport may lead to higher levels of occupational stress (Copeland & Kirsch, 1995).

The impact of occupational stress (OS) on personal health and work effectiveness has caused researchers to study more closely the causes of stress and individual differences affecting stress levels. There is mounting evidence that work stress can have a dysfunctional impact on individual and organizational outcomes (Cooper & Payne, 1988; Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). However, in order to treat stress more effectively, it is necessary to determine the major stress factors (stressors) perceived by administrators. Several studies have found that individual

characteristics and variables and differences in personal meanings about aspects of the workplace mediate stress responses and perceptions of stress in the environment (Firth, 1983, 1985; Payne, Jabri & Pearson, 1988 as cited in Firth-Cozens & Hardy, 1992). Assessment of a situation or event is the process in which one gives meaning to the outer event and inner dialogue. When the person assigns new meanings to the events, he or she influences the stress response (Kindler & Ginsberg, 1994). Cooper and Cartwright (1994) suggested that identifying and recognizing individuals' work stress may be more effective in treating OS than merely investing in stress management.

This present investigation was designed to study the variance in stress levels and perceived stressors among high school ADs according to personal characteristics and organizational factors.

Purpose of the Study

There were three main purposes for conducting this study:

1. To determine perceived occupational stress levels of college athletic directors in the Midwest.
2. To identify various causes of job stress for athletic directors.
3. To determine the effect of gender, race, age, experience, family status (marital status and children), and

type of institution (affiliation and division) on occupational stress levels and perceived stressors of athletic directors.

Research Hypothesis

It was hypothesized that the stress levels and specific stressors will vary significantly according to demographics.

Scope of the Study

The study was conducted under the following conditions:

1. Subjects of the study were athletic directors at Division I, II, or III college and universities in the Midwest. The Midwestern region in this study was defined by the researcher as Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri, and Wisconsin.
2. The evaluation of the data was specific to each subject's measure of occupational stress at one particular point in time.

Importance of the Study

There is mounting evidence that work stress has a dysfunctional impact on individual and organizational outcomes (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994; Cooper & Payne, 1988). High levels of stress have been linked to burnout,

absenteeism, accidents, job dissatisfaction, poor health behaviors, family problems, certain forms of cancer, and even coronary heart disease (Danulchuk, 1993; Cooper & Cartwright, 1994; Heaney & Clemans, 1995). Every individual experiences occupational stress to a certain degree and, likewise, perceives specific tasks as greater stressors than others.

The information gathered in this study helps to determine the major stress-causing tasks and responsibilities of athletic directors. Stress is subjective; it is how people react to situations that feel taxing to them (Kindler & Ginsburg, 1994). Knowledge of which tasks are perceived as stressful may assist ADs in coping with stress, either in preparing for it or in learning what factors are likely to cause it.

The results may also help employers to evaluate the qualifications and skills needed by those seeking an athletic director's position. Research suggests that certain individuals may possess inherited or learned abilities that make them more resistant to stress than other individuals (Danylchuk, 1993). Certain people are more resilient to their stressors and can adjust successfully according to the situation (Kindler & Ginsburg, 1994).

Other studies suggest that stress management programs have helped to reduce individuals' stress levels, but note that there is room for improvement in these organizational programs (Firth-Cozens & Hardy, 1992). Results from this

study may be used by groups to develop better stress management seminars/ work site programs or to assess existing programs aimed at reducing OS.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited by the following conditions:

1. Control over the accuracy of subjects' survey responses was not attempted.
2. The investigator can not be sure that respondents interpreted each of the questions correctly.

Definitions

The following terms were used in the present study:

1. Burnout: A state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward (Danylchuk, 1993).
2. Coping (with stress): Any attempts to deal with stressful situations which a person feels he must do something about, but which tax or exceed his existing adaptation response patterns (Burke & Weir, 1980).
3. Macrostressors: Stressors related to organizational exigencies (Danylchuk, 1993).
4. Microstressors: Stressors related specifically to an individual's job (Danylchuk, 1993).

5. Occupational Stress: A complex construct consisting of (a) sources of work stress, (b) individual personality characteristics, and (c) extra-organizational stressors (Greenberg, 1993 as cited in Copeland & Kirsch, 1995).

6. Qualitative Overload: Job requirements that exceed an individual's ability or skill level (Danylchuk, 1993).

7. Quantitative Overload: Too great a volume of work for the alotted time (Danylchuk, 1993).

8. Resilience: Ability to recover from or readily adjust to misfortune or change (Kindler & Ginsburg, 1994).

9. Role ambiguity: Individual does not understand what is expected on the job (Danylchuk, 1993).

10. Role conflict: Individual is presented with conflicting demands or an unclear chain of command (Danylchuk, 1993).

11. Stress: 1. Interaction between an individual and his surroundings, a person-environment problem resulting from perceptions and appraisals of one's internal and/or external environments (Burke & Weir, 1980). 2. Response to events, both external & self-generated, that tax abilities & resources beyond ability to cope (Kindler & Ginsburg, 1994.)

12. Stress factors: Variety of factors intrinsic to the job which are potentially stressful (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994).

13. Stressors: Events in the environment that require greater than usual adaptive responses from the body (Cohen, 1978, as cited in Danylchuk, 1993).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Stress has become a serious and much-discussed topic for individuals around the world. Organizations are increasingly concerned about the costs of work stress and the effects of occupational stress on their employees and productivity. Human service professions, those that involve much direct contact with people, are often studied regarding stress levels. Along with their normal tasks, these employees and administrators must concern themselves with personal relations and involvement with others (Danylchuk, 1993). Athletic administration is one example of a human service profession, and athletic directors are faced with numerous tasks and events on a daily basis.

Researchers may argue that stress is a necessary and beneficial condition motivating individuals towards better performance and personal growth (Burke & Weir, 1980). It is assumed in these cases that the person has good stress management skills and works well under some form of pressure. However, many more studies have shown that stress is serious and detrimental to a person's health and overall well-being when it is excessive or not managed (Cooper & Payne, 1988; Danylchuk, 1993; Heaney & Clemans, 1995).

It has also been suggested that events in an individual's external environment are not in and of themselves stressful. These events must be perceived by the person, subjected to an appraisal process, and evaluated as a threat to the individual's well-being before the term stress can be applied (Burke & Weir, 1980).

Therefore, in order to get a better understanding of occupational stress, it is necessary to review literature on the following: the effects of demographics on stress levels and specific stressors, the main stressors identified and stress models used by researchers, the effects of stress on individuals and organizations, and some types of stress management/ intervention programs.

Demography

Individual demographic characteristics may have an effect on levels of job stress. For instance, status rankings in society have traditionally been demography-based (e.g. status based on gender, age) and are not always consistent with organization-derived status (e.g. hierarchal rank). Differences between these two types of status (societal and organizational) are likely to be stress-inducing (Bacharach, Bamberger & Mundell, 1993). This happens because demographic attributes of organizational members are interpreted to imply something about the individual's achievements or qualifications. Attitudes and

behaviors are often shaped around these demography-based stereotypes (Kanter, 1977; Alvarez, 1979; Korman, 1988; all as cited in Bacharach et al., 1993).

Much of the literature in stress research has been based on empirical studies which rely on subjects to report their perceptions of how stressful they consider their environment. Often people in the same jobs, working in the same physical environment, perceive varying levels of stress. Some amount of this disagreement may be due to measurement error, or even possible differences in the micro environment (e.g. supervisory treatment), but more likely, disagreements are likely to arise from individual differences that affect a person's interpretation of their work situation (Payne, 1988).

There is increasing evidence that individual characteristics and differences in personal meanings about aspects of the workplace mediate stress responses and perceptions of stress in the environment (Firth-Cozens & Hardy, 1992). Because every individual is unique, each one responds differently in similar work conditions. Knowledge of variations in stress levels and perceived stressors according to demographics may help individuals better prepare for stressful situations or administrative positions.

Individuals choose occupations where they are better able to cope with the intellectual and emotional demands the jobs make on them (Payne, 1988). Therefore, persons can

evaluate the results of studies comparing demography and, by applying the information to their own demographics, can determine their coping ability for the occupation. Research has shown responses regarding stress may vary according to gender, age, marital status, children, experience, and type of program.

Gender

During 1990-1993, the demography of sport management academic programs was as follows: 25% female undergraduate students, 35% female master's students, and 25% female doctoral students. African-American females made up approximately 11% of the undergraduate, 3% of the master's and 2% of the doctoral student populations, whereas white females comprised approximately 20% of the undergraduate, 30% of the master's and 17% of the doctoral student populations (O'Bryant & Hums, 1996 as cited in Hums, O'Bryant & Tremble, 1996). The barriers most often named for gender and race minorities for entering the sport management industry were 1) racism/discrimination, 2) lack or minorities in the field, 3) lack of qualified minorities, 4) limited opportunities in sport management and 5) the "old boys network" (Hums, O'Bryant & Tremble, 1996).

The sport industry as we know it in the United States has historically been a male dominated field, with the employment process relying heavily on word-of-mouth and

personal networking in the employment process (Hums, O'Bryant & Tremble, 1996). An imbalance still exists between the number of males and females employed in administrative positions at universities. Whether this imbalance is also associated with differences in types of stressors experienced by the two sexes is of interest.

Title IX of the Education Amendments was passed in 1972 and bans discrimination on the basis of sex in any educational institution receiving federal financial assistance. Before Title IX, almost all collegiate women's athletic departments were run by women administrators. As many separate women's and men's athletic departments merged, the head of the new department was typically the male head of the men's athletic department. The previous (usually female) head of the women's department was typically relegated to a secondary, non-decision making role (Fox, 1992 as cited in "Title IX..," 1993).

Women administrators head 18.5% of all women's programs, a decrease from 21% in 1994. The percentage of males administering women's athletics programs has increased markedly in Division III and slightly in Division I schools. In addition, only 5% of the voting representatives to the NCAA governing organization are women. On average, there is almost one female involved in athletic administration per college; this is up from .83 in 1992. However, the females are most often quite far down the administrative hierarchy

and are seldom at the policy making level (Acosta & Carpenter, 1996).

Usually preferences fall in favor of the majority. Therefore, because women are underrepresented, they perceive greater gender discrimination and consequently, greater stress.

The Danylchuk study (1993) also indicated that quantitative overload and time pressure were greater sources of stress for women than men. Perhaps this is because women are still expected to maintain domestic duties while also working full-time, thus creating a heavier work load. This may also be the reason that women have reported lower levels of job satisfaction (Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992).

Nelson, Quick, and Hitt's study in 1989 (as cited in Danylchuk, 1993) found that women experience more stress from politics in the workplace than men, but no more stress than men in relation to work conflicts or career progress. The difference in politics may be due, again, to the underrepresentation of females and decisions being made favoring the majority. With the increased number of men in positions to make hiring decisions, it may be that their perceptions carry more weight ("Title IX..". 1993).

In a study by Copeland and Kirsch (1995), female athletic directors rated budget demands and personal relations with personnel as the most stressful job responsibilities, while men rated firing as the most

stressful. Again, women may feel more stress with personal relations because of the politics involved within the organization or because they are usually the minority in athletic administration.

Age

There is a wide variety in the ages of athletic administrators today; the present investigation discovered the range in age of ADs in Illinois schools to be at least 30 years. So what effect does age have on stress levels of employees?

Studies have suggested that 'younger' people are more prone to the excesses of stress and burnout than 'older' people (Maslach, 1982; Golembiewski, Munzeurider, & Stevenson, 1986 as cited in Danylchuk, 1993). This is because, with increased age, people are more stable and mature and have more balanced perspectives on life. Older people also hold more realistic expectations of what they will be able to accomplish and have better coping skills. This may be related to more years of experience. Also, initial burnout usually occurs in the first few years of employment, when younger people also have more outside commitments and smaller networks than their older counterparts.

Marital Status

Research shows that marital status is a factor in burnout, which is most often caused by stress, with higher levels reported for single people (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Danylchuk, 1993). Also, when job attitudes of married and single people are compared, there is a consistent finding that the married portion of the sample reports higher levels of job satisfaction (Gutek, Repetti, & Silver, 1988). However, the satisfaction may still remain higher for the husbands than wives, because marriage often appears to limit occupational achievement, particularly for women. Compared to singles, married women report more role conflict in areas such as time and household management (Nevill & Damico, 1975 as cited in Gutek et al., 1988).

Reasons have been suggested as to why, overall, married subjects perceive their stress levels to be lower than singles. Stress models have identified social support as an important resource, capable of alleviating the adverse effects of stressors encountered in different domains (Parasuraman et al., 1992). Marriage may provide one form of social support that can counteract the tendency for detachment or overinvolvement (Danylchuk, 1993).

Children

Parasuraman (1992) reported that parental status had been found to be negatively related to job satisfaction and marital quality, and is also associated with depression and psychological strain. Subjects with children have also perceived job scope as a greater source of stress than those without children (Danylchuk, 1993). This suggests that child-care tasks at home contribute to the overall work load, thus increasing stress levels. Employed mothers complain more about a shortage of time than do fathers (Voydanoff & Kelly, 1984 as cited in Gutek et al., 1988). Likewise, to compensate for the temporary loss of income from their wives staying at home to care for the children, fathers of young children are likely to work long hours (Moen & Moorehouse, 1983 as cited in Gutek et al., 1988).

Experience

Research on years of work experience has produced conflicting results. For example, in 1986, Golembiewski (as cited in Danylchuk, 1993) found a curvilinear relationship between stress levels and experience. People with fewer than two years and more than 10 years of service experienced the lowest burnout. On the other hand, Cardinell (1981)

indicated a wide range of years for susceptibility to burnout- roughly ages 30-50 (as cited in Danylchuk, 1993).

In another research article, it was stated that subjects with 11-20 years of experience as compared to subjects with 21 or more years of experience felt role ambiguity was a significantly greater source of stress. It was suggested that subjects with greater experience should know exactly what is expected from them or what they expect from others. Also, subjects with 11-20 years of experience perceived supervisory style as a significantly greater source of stress than did subjects with 10 years of experience or less (Danylchuk, 1993). Perhaps in this case, the younger subjects were simply more eager and willing to follow supervisors' instructions, etc. than were people more accustomed to a different style or maybe 'fed up' with their supervisors.

Major Stressors

The prevalence of occupational stressors has largely been examined through the use of the Stress Diagnostic Survey (SDS) designed by Ivancevich and Matteson (1988). After thorough research of many organizations and employees, Ivancevich and Matteson identified the major sources of stress reported by workers and constructed the SDS using this information. The SDS consisted of 17 stressors,

divided into macrostressors and microstressors. The macrostressors (organizational stressors) included: politics (politics rather than performance affect organizational decisions); human resource development (lack of training and development opportunities); rewards (lack of relationship between performance and rewards); participation (management not being receptive to input from employees); underutilization (job assignments that are not challenging and that do not require full use of skills and abilities); supervisory style (inadequate quality of supervision); organizational structure (structural forces that are confusing and restrictive); and work flow (inadequate flow of work within the work place). In response to the imbalance of the number of women in the professoriae, an additional scale was added to the SDS by Danylchuk- gender discrimination. The internal consistency estimate for gender discrimination was reported to be .82.

Microstressors included: role ambiguity (individual does not clearly understand what is expected on the job); role conflict (individual is presented with conflicting demands or an unclear chain of command); quantitative overload (too great a volume of work for the allotted time); qualitative overload (job requirements that exceed the individual's ability or skill level); career progress (lack of opportunities to advance or learn new skills and techniques); responsibility for people (being responsible for other employees and accountable for their work); time

pressure (unreasonable deadlines and time demands), job scope (general range and depth of the job and lack of variety and feedback); and technology (degree of technology in the work place) (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1988; Danylchuk, 1993).

Ivancevich and Matteson (1988) reported internal consistency estimates (Cronback's alpha) ranging from .58 to .87 for the macrostressors and .64 to .95 for the microstressors (Danylchuk, 1993).

Macrostressors have been reported as greater sources of stress than microstressors. This may be because macrostressors are less open to individual control than microstressors. Often, an individual has no authority in an organization and, therefore, must work in unfavorable conditions, causing increased stress levels.

The most frequently cited of all stressors have been role ambiguity and role conflict. Both of these result in undesirable consequences for both the organization and its members (Danylchuk, 1993). Role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload represent chronic stressors that are pervasive in the work domain (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980; Parasuraman et al. 1992; Danylchuk, 1993). Cooper and Cartwright (1994) have cited role ambiguity, role conflict, and degree of responsibility for others as the major sources of potential stress. For instance, in one study, a high level of role conflict was found to be a major predictor of abnormally high blood pressure.

Other studies have found additional stress-causing tasks frequently reported by athletic administrators. In 1987, Hatfield, Wrenn, & Bretting (as cited in Copeland and Kirsch, 1995) identified public relations, financial management, marketing, and administration as responsibilities most prominent among NCAA ADs and professional sport managers. Public relations, budgeting, and interpersonal communication have been deemed the most important areas within the fields of sport and recreational management (Cuskelly & Auld, 1991; Parks & Quain, 1986 both as cited in Copeland & Kirsch, 1995). Another study of college ADs (Hartman, 1981) reported budget demands, maintaining a competitive program, hiring and firing, and time demands, respectively, as most stressful (as cited in Copeland & Kirsch, 1995).

Firing, especially, has been reported as causing high stress among athletic directors (Venzon unpublished paper, 1997). According to a study conducted at 45 hospitals across the United States, managers run double the risk of having a heart attack during the week after firing an employee (Times-Courier, 1998).

Stress Models

Three main stress models have been reported and used in research on occupational stress. They are:

1. The Stress Diagnostic Survey (SDS)- It assesses 17 sources of organizational (macrostressors) and individual stress (microstressors). It was originated by Ivancevich and Matteson (1988).

2. Occupational Stress Indicator (OSI)- It has been used as a diagnostic instrument in OS. Devised by Cooper, Sloan, and Williams (1988), the model categorizes sources into six areas: factors intrinsic to the job, role in the organization, relationship with others, career development, organizational structure, climate and culture, and home/work interface.

3. Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)- It was developed to assess a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that can occur frequently among individuals with 'people-oriented' jobs (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout is categorized into three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

Effects of Stress

A growing body of evidence has emerged over the years indicating that occupational stress (e.g. stressors) causes health problems and job strain (Danylchuk, 1993). Occupational stress may not only increase illness, but may also contribute to a slower recovery from illness (Maes, Vingerhoets, & Van Heck, 1987 as cited in Heaney & Clemans, 1995). Stress has a dysfunctional effect on both individual

and organizational outcomes (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). It has also been the leading cause of employee burnout, more than other individual or organizational factors alone (Danylchuk, 1993).

Links have been made between stress and incidence of coronary heart disease, mental breakdown, poor health behaviors, job dissatisfaction, accidents, family problems, and certain forms of cancer (McLean, 1980; Frese, 1985; Cooper & Watson, 1991 all as cited in Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). It is estimated that over $700 million per year is spent by U.S. employers to replace the 200,000 men aged 45-65 who die or are incapacitated by coronary artery disease alone (Cooper, 1985 as cited in Cooper & Cartwright, 1994).

Between 1989 and 1994, doctors at 45 U.S. hospitals interviewed 791 working people who had just experienced heart attacks. The researchers concluded that firing someone or having a high-pressure deadline (two major stressors in this study's survey) doubled the usual risk of a heart attack during the following week (Times-Courier, 1998).

The costs of occupational stress have been increasingly calculated and analyzed. There is a direct relationship between exposure to stressors and voluntary absenteeism. Employees engage in nonsickness voluntary absenteeism when they perceive their work situations to be stressful (Heaney & Clemans, 1995). Annually, the U.S. industry loses approximately 550 million working days due to absenteeism.

It is estimated that 54% of these absences are in some way stress-related (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994).

The health of the nation has become a major concern, and employee health care costs and insurance premiums have risen in the past couple decades. This is due to many factors that have increased medical costs for companies. In fact, according to the American Institute of Stress and the American Psychological Association, the total cost to American organizations assessed by job stress and related problems, including direct medical expenses, adds up to more than $200 billion a year (USA Today, 1998).

Stress Intervention

So what are employers doing in attempts to create a healthy environment and reduce employees' work stress? In a recent survey of 3000 worksites, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services found that more than 60% of worksites with 750 or more employees offer some form of stress management or health promotion activity. Growing health and safety legislation, increased insurance costs and fear of litigation have forced organizations to take a more responsive attitude toward stress reduction. These forms vary widely and include having fitness facilities on site, dietary control, cardiovascular fitness programs, relaxation and exercise classes, stress education or psychological

counseling, or a combination of these, like Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994).

EAPs tend to be "employee" rather than "organization" directed strategies, where the focus is on changing the individuals' behaviors and lifestyles and stress management skills. Some experts on coping with stress believe the cornerstone of stress management is the knowledge that gaining control over our lives depends not so much on what is happening, but how we choose to react (Kindler & Ginsburg, 1994). There have been reports supporting the benefits of EAPs and health promotion activities. Figures typically show savings to investment ratios of anywhere from 3:1 to 15:1 (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994).

Murphy (1988) emphasizes three levels of intervention: primary (e.g. stressor reduction), secondary (e.g. stress management), and tertiary (e.g. Employee Assistance Programs). At the tertiary level, interventions include two main categories: health promotion activities, aimed at modifying behavorial risk factors leading to poor health, and health screening, which is concerned with the diagnosis of existing conditions.

Burke and Weir (1980) indicate three methods of stress management: transcendental meditation, a technique for gaining deep physical relaxation and improved mental clarity; relaxation response, a set of physiological changes with decreased tension; and physical exercise or fitness. Relaxation training has been effective in reducing blood

pressure, muscle tension, and anxiety (Murphy, 1984 as cited in Landsbergis, 1988).

Stress is commonly experienced by individuals as a feeling of powerlessness and of being out of control. Research has suggested that employees' perceived control over a situation is an advantage in managing environmental stress agents. When psychological demands of the job are high and the individual worker's control over the task and decision latitude is low, this results in psychological strain (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). Studies have shown improvement in symptoms following psychological treatment for stress at work (Firth-Cozens & Hardy, 1992).

DeFrank and Cooper (1987) suggested that stress intervention can focus on the individual, organization, or both (as cited in Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). A 'healthy' organization can be defined as an organization characterized by both financial success and a physically and psychologically healthy workforce, which is able to maintain over time a healthy and satisfying work environment and organizational culture, particularly through market turbulence and change (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). Therefore, it can be argued that in a healthy organization, which has been successful in maintaining a relatively stress-free environment, stress management and EAP interventions are unnecessary. A healthy organization will have effectively reduced or eliminated stressors before they have affected employee health.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The present study investigated the perceived occupational stress levels of college athletic directors, the causes of work stress, and the effects of demographic variance on perceived stress levels and stressors.

Subjects

The target population was athletic directors at Midwestern colleges (n=72). The Midwestern schools included colleges and universities in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri, and Wisconsin. The population location was limited to the Midwest due to lack of resources and to increase the likelihood of homogeneity of the subjects. In order to have a significant sample size for gender comparisons, all women college athletic directors in the Midwest were chosen for the sample (n=23). The remaining subjects were chosen from a systematic random sample of colleges listed in The 1997-98 National Directory of College Athletics (1997). Every fifth college was chosen from an alphabetical listing of the schools by state.

The number of returned surveys was 55, a response rate of 76.4%. The women ADs' response rate was 69.6% (n=16).

The male subjects' response rate was 79.6% (n=39). In a few instances, however, the respondents did not complete all items in the survey. Consequently, the degrees of freedom varied from analysis to analysis due to the missing data.

Survey Design

A 45-item survey (Appendix A) was designed to measure stress levels and specific stressors of athletic directors. The survey included four sections: i) general perception of administration-related stress; ii) stress levels of selected tasks; iii) work-related stressors; and iv) demographic information. The first three sections were answered according to a five-point Likert scale, ranging from *never* to *always*.

The first two sections were developed from a study done by Barry Copeland and Scott Kirsch at Syracuse University in 1995. In the first section, athletic directors were asked the degree to which they felt stress was evident in their profession, their responses to and recovery from OS, and their opinion on work site stress management programs.

The second section was constructed to assess stress levels of selected tasks and included the following: personal relations with personnel; policy decision making; budget demands; program organization and development; meeting gender equity and affirmative action guidelines; maintaining a competitive program; completing tasks on time;

firing; public relations; event management; fund raising; and compiling NCAA/NAIA data.

The third section of the survey assessed athletic directors' perceptions of work-related stressors. The Stress Diagnostic Survey was used as the basis for this section, and subjects responded on the degree of stress caused by the 17 work-related stressors (see Stress Models in Chapter II).

The last section identified demographic variables of each individual. To assess the effect of demography on stress levels, several variables were included: affiliation (NCAA, NAIA or independent) and division (I, II, or III) of each institution; age; gender; ethnic background; marital status; children; and experience. There were four categories for age: under 30, 30-39, 40-49, and 50 or over. The ethnic background categories included: Caucasian, African-American; Asian; Hispanic; Native American; and other (fill-in). Three marital status categories were used: single and never married; single and divorced, separated or widowed; and married. Respondents were asked to identify if they had any children under the age of 18 living at home. The subjects were also asked to indicate (fill-in) how many years they had worked in their current positions and how many years overall they had worked as an athletic director.

Data Collection

A cover letter (Appendix B) and survey were sent to the college athletic directors in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri, and Wisconsin on February 28, 1998, requesting cooperation and a response by March 31, 1998.

Seventy-two surveys were mailed, and the response rate was 76.4% (n=55). Forty-six surveys were received by the requested deadline. On March 27, a reminder letter (Appendix C) was sent to the subjects who had not responded, with a return deadline of April 7. Another nine surveys were received by the second deadline.

Data Analysis

The Frequencies Program from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for analysis of data. Frequency counts and percentages were further broken down according to demographic data.

A chi-square analysis with .05 level of significance was used to determine statistically significant differences in subjects' responses depending upon the demographic information.

For the purpose of discussing Likert ratings of selected items, a mean of 3.5 as the criterion for cutoff of the lower real limits of *almost always*, and a mean of 2.5 as the criterion for cutoff of the upper real limits of *almost*

never were selected as a control (see Copeland & Kirsch, 1995, for similar procedures).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

To determine the perceived stress levels of college athletic directors, a survey was sent to both specific colleges (for the sample of women ADs) and to random colleges (for the sample of males) in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri, and Wisconsin. Demographic information was obtained, and subjects were asked to respond to questions regarding their general perception of job stress, perceived stress levels of selected tasks, and the degree of stress caused by specific stressors. The perceptions were determined according to a five-point Likert Scale, and significant relationships were determined through chi-square analysis with a .05 level of significance.

Demographic Data

The sample was composed of 71% males (n=39) and 29% females (n=16). The majority of respondents were older adults: 41.8% were over 50 (n=23), 40% were 40-49 (n=22), 14.5% were 30-39 (n=8), and 3.6% were younger than 30 (n=2). A total of 96% of the respondents were Caucasian (n=53), 2% Native American (n=1), and one response (2%) was not answered. Only 25.5% of the subjects were single (n=14), including four divorced, separated or widowed subjects,

whereas 72.7% of respondents were married. Less than half of the subjects had children under the age of 18 at home (38.2%, n=21) and 60% (n=33) said they did not. For each of the above variables, one response was not completed, thus the missing 1.8%.

Of the 72 surveys mailed, 41 (56.9%) were sent to NCAA colleges, 24 (33.3%) to NAIA, and 7 (9.7%) to independents; 16 (24.6%) were Division I, 28 (43.1%) were Division II, and 21 (32.3%) were Division III. Of the surveys received, a total of 56.4% were affiliated with the NCAA (n=31) and 36.4% were affiliated with the NAIA (n=20), and 7.3% were independent institutions (n=4). A total of 23.6% were Division I (n=13), 47.3% were Division II (n=26), and 29% were Division III (n=16). The mean number of years experience in their current position was 8.72, with a standard deviation of 7.18; the mean number of total years as an athletic director was 10.76, with a standard deviation of 7.55.

General Perception of Job Stress

Table 1 reveals the means and standard deviations of items concerning perceptions of occupational stress. Applying a mean of 3.5 as the criterion for the lower limits of *almost always,* athletic directors felt stress was almost always evident in their profession (M=3.84), but they also believed they almost always recovered quickly from job

stress (M=3.80). Likewise, applying a mean of 2.5 as the criterion for upper limits of *almost never*, ADs indicated that stress (job or non-job related) did not inhibit their performance (M=2.40, M=2.44, respectively).

TABLE 1: Means and Standard Deviations of General Perception of Administration-Related Job Stress

Item	n	M	SD
1. Do you feel stress is evident in your profession?	55	3.84	.74
2. Do you like job-related stressful situations?	55	3.05	.70
3. Do you work better under job-related stress?	55	3.16	.69
4. Do you recover quickly from job stress?	55	3.80	.59
5. Do you feel job stress inhibits your performance?	55	2.40	.83
6. Do you feel non-job related stress inhibits your performance?	55	2.44	.81
7. Do you feel work site programs aimed at stress reduction are (or might be) effective?	55	2.87	.65

Perceived Stress Levels of Selected Tasks

Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of stress levels of selected tasks. Applying the mean criterion cutoff, one of the selected tasks, firing, was considered almost always stressful by the subjects ($M \geq 3.5$). Only one task, meeting affirmative action guidelines ($M=2.44$) was deemed as almost never stressful.

TABLE 2: Means and Standard Deviations of Perceived Stress Levels of Selected Tasks

Item	n	M	SD
8. Personal relations with personnel	55	3.02	.76
9. Policy decision making	54	2.91	.65
10. Budget demands	55	3.44	1.01
11. Program organization and development	55	2.65	.75
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	55	2.67	.96
13. Maintaining a competitive program	55	3.36	.99
14. Completing task demands on time	55	3.07	.96
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	55	2.44	.92
16. Firing	55	4.00	1.07
17. Public Relations	55	2.67	1.04
18. Event Management	55	2.78	.81
19. Fund raising	53	3.13	1.07
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	55	2.65	1.04

Macrostressors

No macrostressors were considered by ADs as almost always or always stressful (see table 3). On the other hand, five macrostressors were deemed as almost never stressful. These stressors were: human resource development (M=2.38); underutilization, (M=2.16); inadequate (quality of) supervision (M=2.27); work flow, or inadequate flow of work (M=2.42); and gender discrimination (M=2.13).

TABLE 3: Means and Standard Deviations of Macrostressors

Variable	n	M	SD
21. Politics	55	3.02	.93
22. Human resource development	55	2.38	.91
23. Rewards	55	2.76	1.04
24. Participation	55	2.62	.93
25. Underutilization	55	2.16	.81
26. Supervisory style	55	2.27	.85
27. Organization structure	55	2.64	.93
28. Work flow	55	2.42	.76
29. Gender discrimination	55	2.13	.94

Microstressors

Table 4 reveals the means and standard deviations for the perceived stress caused by microstressors. Applying the mean criterion cutoff of 3.5 for *almost always* stressful, none of the microstressors were considered to be almost always stressing. However, four others were perceived as causing very little stress. They were: role ambiguity (M=2.07); qualitative overload (M=1.96); career progress (M=2.38); and job scope (M=2.35).

TABLE 4: Means and Standard Deviations of Microstressors

Variable	n	M	SD
30. Role ambiguity	55	2.07	.84
31. Role conflict	55	2.58	1.13
32. Quantitative overload	55	3.40	.89
33. Qualitative overload	55	1.96	.72
34. Career progress	55	2.38	.80
35. Responsibility for people	55	2.93	.88
36. Time pressure	55	2.64	.85
37. Job scope	55	2.35	.89
38. Technology in the workplace	55	2.51	.92

Demographic Variations

Effects of Gender

Both men (M=3.77) and women (M=4.0) considered stress as usually evident in their profession, but both also recovered quickly from occupational stress (M=3.87, M=3.62, respectively).

The only survey item considered to be almost always stressful for male athletic directors was firing (M=4.10). Yet they answered that nine of the stressors were actually almost never stressing to them. The least stressful survey item was gender discrimination (M=1.95).

The women ADs, on the other hand, responded that too much work for the alotted time was the highest stressor (M=3.88) and included three other items as almost always stressful. These were firing (M=3.75), budgeting (M=3.63), and maintaining a competitive program (M=3.63). Requirements exceeding the ADs' skill level was the lowest stressor for the women (M=1.94), as well as a low stressor for the men (M=1.97). Seven of the survey items were considered as not very stressful for the women, although gender discrimination was not among them (unlike the mens' response.)

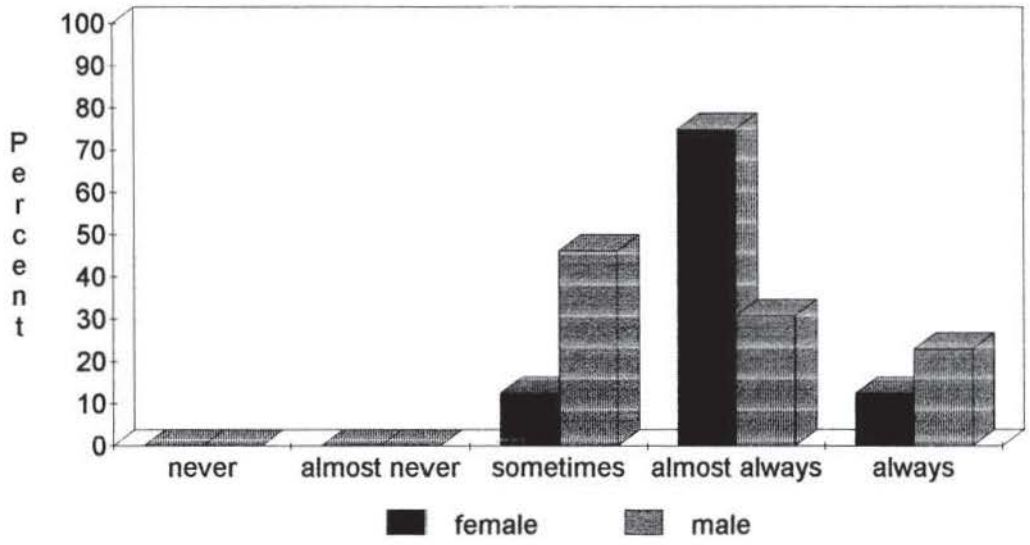
Overall, women athletic directors had a higher total mean score (sum of mean score for all 38 questions) of stress at 106.44; men had a total mean of 104.92.

Chi-square analysis, $X^2(2, N = 55) = 9.25$, $p < .05$, showed a significant difference between the male and female ADs' responses to question one, the perception of stress evident in their profession.

As shown in Figure 1, females perceived stress to be evident more often than males. The analysis indicated that 12.5% of the women and 46.2% of the men thought their job was sometimes stressful, 75% of the women and only 30.8% of the men said it was almost always stressful, and 12.5% of the women and 23% of the men thought it was always stressful. No subjects indicated that job stress was never or almost never stressful.

Figure 1: Stress Evident in Profession

Question 1



Effects of Age

Only two subjects were less than thirty years old; therefore, no comparisons will be made with this age group because two subject's responses can not be considered representative of an entire age group.

Each of the remaining age group members rated their jobs as stressful, but all claimed they also recovered quickly from stress: 30-39- M=3.62, M=3.5; 40-49- M=3.95, M=3.59, and 50 and older M=3.87, M=4.09. ADs age 30-39 rated firing as almost always stressful (M=4.5), along with the 40-49 year olds (M=3.86) and those over 50 (M=4.13). Too much work for the alotted time was a stressor for the 30-39 group (M=3.75) and the 40-49 group (M=3.55). Both the 40-49 group and the 50 and older group felt that dealing with the budget is usually stressful (M=3.5, M=3.52, respectively).

There was a significant difference in perceived stress caused by management not being receptive to employee input, $X^2(12, N = 55) = 27.36, p < .05$. Athletic directors ages 30-39 thought this situation was sometimes stressful (M=3.0), as did ADs 50 and older (M=2.87); however the middle age group (40-49) did not perceive this as a stressor (M=2.36).

None of the age groups felt that they had stress from not understanding what was expected on the job or that job requirements exceed their ability. In addition, there were

no macrostressors perceived as almost always stressful by any of the age groups.

The total mean scores for the age groups show that the overall stress levels decrease slightly with increased age: 30-39, total M=108.5; 40-49, total M=107; 50 and over, total M=105.

Effects of Ethnic Background

Because only one respondent was not Caucasian, no comparisons were made.

Effects of Marital Status

There were significant differences in perceived stressors and stress levels in comparing subjects' marital status. Although there were only four subjects in the divorced, separated or widowed category, their answers were consistent with each other and show the highest amount of stress among all demographic variables considered in this study. Single (and never married) athletic directors rated three stressors at or above the mean criterion cutoff of 3.5 as almost always stressful: firing (M=3.9); too much work for the alotted time (M=3.9); and maintaining a competitive program (M=3.5).

Married subjects rated firing as the only task that they perceive as almost always stressful (M=4.03). However,

athletic directors in category two- those who were divorced, separated or widowed- rated ten survey items at or above the 3.5 mean. Budget was the greatest stressor (M=4.25), with firing (M=4.0), politics (M=4.0), public relations (M=3.75), fund raising (M=3.75), compiling data (M=3.75), gender equity (M=3.5), maintaining a competitive program (M=3.5), too much work for the alotted time (M=3.5), and responsibility for employees' work (M=3.5) also indicated as almost always stressful.

The only stressor found to be almost always stressful in each of the marital categories was firing. The total of the mean scores for category two (divorced, etc.) was 114.5, while the total mean score of married ADs was only 104.67, and single ADs was 105.7..

The chi square analysis showed several answers were significantly different according to marital status. Divorced, separated, or widowed ADs claimed they worked better under stress than single and married ADs, $X^2(6, N = 54) = 18.71$, $p < .05$. Yet, unlike single and married subjects, divorced subjects said their performance was inhibited by both job stress (see Figure 2), $X^2(8, N = 54) = 21.64$, $p < .05$, and non-job stress (see Figure 3), $X^2(6, N = 54) = 13.53$, $p < .05$.

As indicated in Figure 2, 40% of single ADs, 25% of divorced, separated, or widowed ADs, and 45% of married ADs thought job stress almost never inhibited their performance; 60%, 25%, and 37.5% (respectively) thought it was sometimes

inhibiting. No single subjects thought they were almost always inhibited, but half of the divorced category indicated they were almost always or always inhibited.

Figure 3 indicates that no subjects reported non-job stress to be always stressful. Non-job stress was never stressful to 10% of single ADs, 25% of ADs in the divorced

Figure 2: Job Stress Inhibiting
Question 5

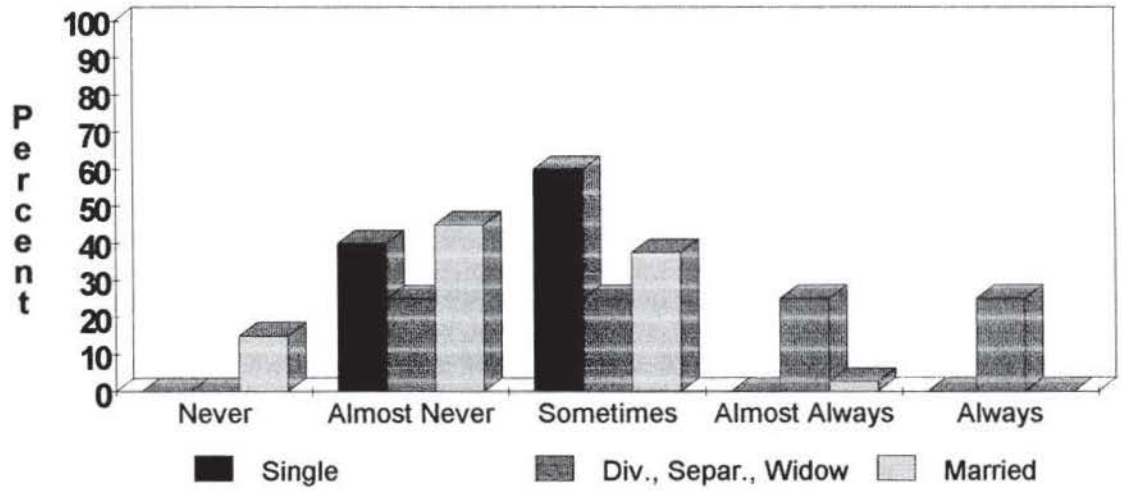
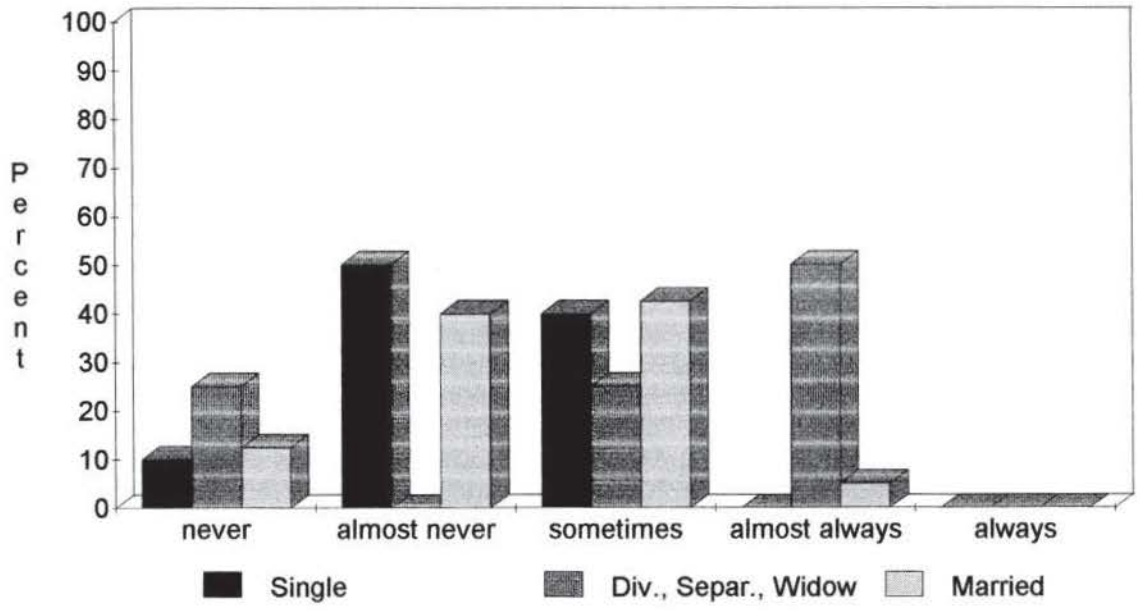


Figure 3: Non-Job Stress Inhibiting
Question 6



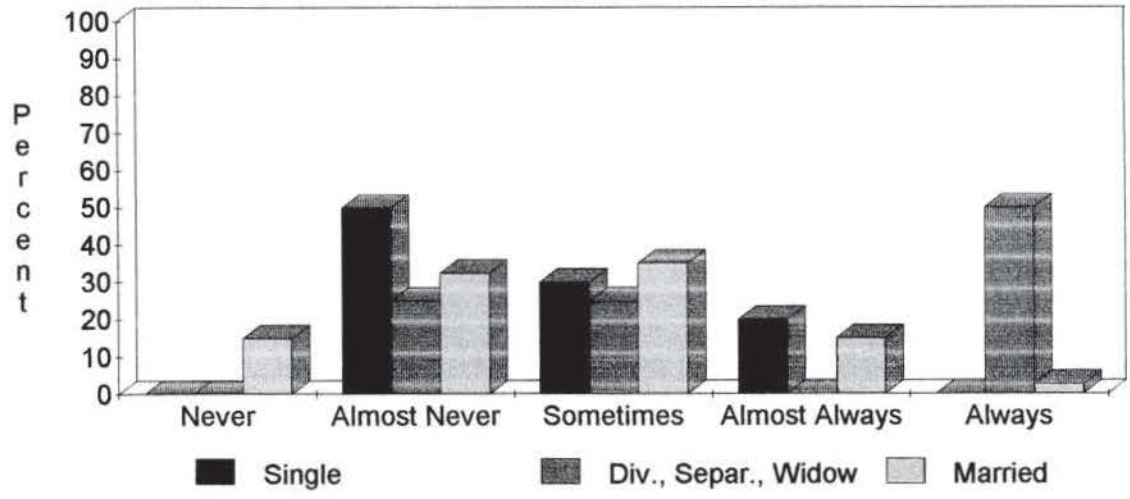
category, and 12.5% of married ADs. Non-job stress was almost never stressful to 50% of single and 40% of married ADs, but sometimes stressing for 40% of single, 25% of divorced, and 42.5% of married subjects. Only 5% of married ADs reported non-job stress almost always inhibiting, compared to 50% of divorced ADs.

There was more than a one point difference in mean score between the divorced, separated or widowed ADs (M=3.75) and the single (M=2.7) and married ADs (M=2.58) on stress levels caused by public relations. The statistical significance was $X^2(8, N = 54) = 19.30, p < .05$.

Figure 4 illustrates this significant difference. Public relations was deemed never stressful to 15% of married subjects, and almost never stressful to 50% of single, 25% of divorced, and 32.5% of married athletic

Figure 4: Public Relations Stressful

Question 17



directors. On the other hand, the job task was sometimes stressing to 30% of the single, 25% of the divorced, and 35% of married subjects. While only 20% of single and 15% of married ADs considered public relations almost always stressful, the majority in the divorced category, 50%, thought they were always stressed by it.

Effects of Children

The task of firing was considered as almost always stressful for athletic directors with children under 18 at home (M=4.14) and ADs without children (M=3.91). No other tasks or stressors were perceived as almost always stressful for ADs without children. One microstressor, too great a volume of work for the alotted time, was almost always stressful to ADs with children under 18 at home (M=3.52).

The chi square analysis indicated a significant difference, X^2 (8, N = 54) = 9.56, $p < .05$, in the stress caused by conflicting demands (question 31) between the administrators with children (M=3.0) and those without children (M=2.33).

Effects of Experience

The effects of experience was studied according to the respondents' *overall* years of experience as athletic

directors and the respondents' experience in their *current* position.

Overall experience as an athletic director was divided into five categories: less than 10 years of experience (n=28), 10-14 years (n=12), 15-19 years (n=3), 20-24 years (n=9), and more than 25 years experience (n=2).

ADs in each of these categories responded that they considered stress as almost always evident in their jobs, but the ADs in every category also said that they recovered quickly from OS.

The total mean stress score for ADs with less than ten years of experience and those with 10-14 years experience was nearly the same (M=104.54, M=104.58), but dropped slightly for ADs with 15-19 years (M=103).

A spike in the stress levels occurred with ADs having 20-24 years of experience, as they totalled a mean score of 115.56. Although those with less experience found only one constant stressor (firing), the 20-24 category scored seven survey items above 3.5. These were: firing (M=4.22); fund raising (M=3.89); budgeting, maintaining competitiveness, and quantitative overload (M=3.78 each); and personal relations with personnel and completing demands on time (M=3.56 each).

Although the 20-24 years category scored the highest stress levels, there was a substantial drop in perceived stress for ADs with at least 25 years of experience (n=2).

There were only two respondents in this category, but they totalled a mere 91.0 for their overall mean score.

The only stressor that was consistent in each category was firing, which was perceived as almost always stressful regardless of the ADs' experience.

The categories for ADs' years of experience in their current position were divided into: less than five years of experience (n=23); 5-9 years (n=11); 10-14 years (n=10); and more than 15 years of experience (n=10).

The total mean score for the administrators was low for the ADs with less than five years at 101.17, with an increase in the total mean for the ADs with 5-9 years at 111.91. The mean score then drops for the athletic directors with 10-14 years in their current position to 110.60, and is the lowest total mean for the ADs with more than 15 years in their current position at 104.90.

Again, the only stressor perceived as almost always stressful for each category was firing. ADs with 5-9 years at their current school also thought that much stress was caused from too much work for the allowed time (M=3.91), maintaining a competitive program (M=3.64), and budgeting (M=3.55). Along with firing and budget demands, ADs with 10-14 years believed the lack of relationship between performance and rewards was almost always stressful (M=3.5). The administrators with more than 15 years of experience in their current position thought maintaining a competitive

program (M= 3.7) and too much work for the specified time (M=3.7) were also major stressors.

There were two macrostressors, assignments that are not challenging and gender discrimination, and two microstressors, not understanding job expectations and requirements exceeding ability, that were deemed almost never stressful by the ADs in each category.

Effects of Affiliation of Institution

The NCAA had the highest stress levels of the three divisions. The total mean score for NCAA Division I directors was 103.13, compared to the NAIA Division I ADs' total of only 89.4 and the Independents' total mean of 80.75. The NCAA affiliations also scored a higher stress score for Division II schools.

Overall, the NCAA athletic directors answered that occupational stress was almost always evident in their profession (M=3.96), but they also recovered quickly from the stress (M=3.77) and they were not inhibited by job or non-job related stress. ADs from NCAA colleges perceived three job tasks as stressful: firing (M=4.23), budgeting (M=3.68), and maintaining a competitive program (M=3.58) They also rated nine organizational and individual exigencies as not stressful: lack of training and development opportunities (M=2.32), inadequate supervision by superiors (M=2.23), inadequate workflow (M=2.48), gender

discrimination (M=2.32), not understanding job expectations (M=2.16), job requirements exceeding skills or ability (M=2.0), lack of opportunities to learn new skills (M=2.45), and general range of job (M=2.48).

The respondents from NAIA schools also considered stress evident in their profession (M=3.8), but they also recover quickly from OS (M=3.8) and are not inhibited by job stress (M=2.3). Firing and too much work for the alotted time were the only two stressors considered by NAIA athletic directors as almost always stressful. Like the NCAA directors, there were many tasks and situations NAIA administrators saw as not stressing: program organization and development (M=2.45), meeting affirmative action guidelines (M=2.35), public relations (M=2.45), assignments that are not challenging (M=2.2), inadequate work flow (M=2.45), gender discrimination (M=2.05), not understanding job expectations (M=2.0), job requirements exceeding ability (M=1.95), lack of opportunity to learn new skills (M=2.3), and general range of job (M=2.25).

Athletic directors from independent institutions answered that their jobs were only sometimes stressful (M=3.0) and that they almost always recovered quickly from OS (M=4.0). No survey items were deemed as almost always stressful, and gender discrimination in the workplace was considered never stressful (M=1.0).

According to the chi square analysis, there is a significant difference in perceived stress caused by firing,

$x^2(8, N = 55) = 25.09, p < .05$. Athletic directors from independent institutions did not think the task of firing was stressful (M=2.0), while ADs from NCAA and NAIA schools answered that firing is almost always stressful for them.

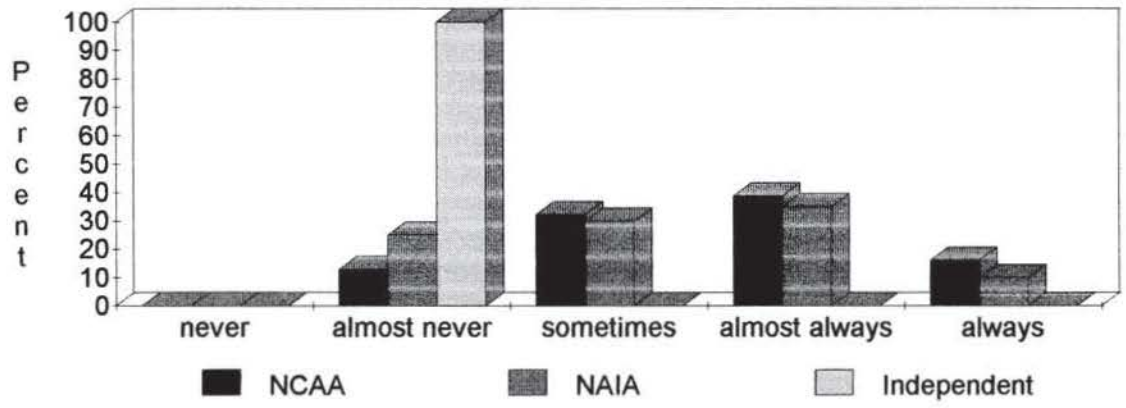
Likewise, a substantial difference across affiliations can be seen in the perception of politics affecting organizational decisions, $X^2(8, N = 55) = 19.04, p < .05$. Again, politics rarely causes stress for ADs of independent colleges (M=1.5), but the microstressor becomes a little more evident in NAIA schools (M=2.5) and sometimes stressing for NCAA athletic directors (M=3.23).

Both NCAA (M=3.58) and NAIA (M=3.3) ADs perceived stress as caused by trying to maintain a competitive program, whereas ADs from independent schools felt this was almost never stressing (M=2.2). The significant factor was $X^2(6, N = 55) = 15.12, p < .05$

Figure 5 indicates that 100% of independents found it almost never stressful, along with 12.9% of NCAA and 25%

Figure 5: Maintaining Program Stressful

Question 13



of NAIA directors. Of the NCAA ADs, this task was sometimes stressful for 32.3%, almost always stressing for 38.7%, and always stressful for 16.2%. NAIA directors had slightly lower levels at 30%, 35%, and 10%, respectively.

Effects of Institutional Division

Respondents from each division (I, II, and III) in the NCAA felt that stress was almost always evident in their profession, but the athletic directors also felt they recovered quickly from the job stress. While NCAA Division II directors almost always liked job-related stressful situations (M=3.56) and worked better under stress (M=3.67), the Division I and Division III ADs only sometimes worked better under stress.

The total mean score for the NCAA divisions was Division III- 112.29, Division II- 109.66 and Division I- 103.13. Both NCAA Division I and Division II athletic directors found the same three job tasks- firing (M=4.38, M=4.11), budget (M=3.88, M=4.11), and maintaining a competitive program (M=3.5, M=4.00)- as almost always stressful. There were no organizational or individual stressors considered almost always stressful by either of the same two divisions. There were three stressors that were considered almost never stressful across each division in the NCAA: inadequate quality of supervision, not

understanding what is expected, and job requirements exceeding their skill levels.

There was a significant difference in stress levels between Division I and Division II in NAIA affiliated colleges. The total mean score of NAIA I ADs was 89.4, whereas NAIA II ADs had a much higher total mean score of 109.40. (There were no respondents from NAIA III institutions.) Both NAIA I and NAIA II directors consider stress evident (M=3.6, M=3.87) but both also recovered quickly (M=4.6, M=3.53).

There were no tasks or stressors considered to be almost always stressful to the NAIA Division I directors, while the Division II administrators found firing personnel (M=4.27), too much work for alotted time (M=3.93) and maintaining a competitive program (M=3.67) to be stressing. NAIA I ADs found too much work (M=2.4), program competitiveness (M=2.2), and firing (M=3.4) to be much less stressful. The NAIA Division I directors also thought public relations was almost never stressful (M=1.6), while it was sometimes stressful for Division II directors (M=2.93).

The chi-square analysis showed a significant difference in two areas of the survey. Division I and Division II ADs did not deem a lack of training or development opportunities (M=2.08, M=2.46) as stressful, but Division III directors found it sometimes stressing (M=2.64). The significance was $X^2(8, N = 53) = 18.64, p < .05$. Similarly, those in

Division III felt a lack of opportunities to learn new techniques and skills which sometimes caused them stress (M=2.79). ADs in the other two divisions did not consider this a stressful situation, $X^2(6, N = 53) = 13.38, p < .05$.

Data tables listing the mean scores and demographic variables for each category of subjects as reported above are found in Appendix D.

Discussion

Results of this study attempt to determine the effect of demographic differences on athletic directors' general perceptions of occupational stress, specific stressful tasks, and organizational and individual stressors. The results may be of value to interested researchers and organizations.

While athletic directors, regardless of their specific demographics, confirmed that occupational stress was almost always evident (M=3.84), the ADs also felt they almost always recovered quickly from occupational stress (M=3.80). In addition, the respondents claimed that job (M=2.40) and non-job (M=2.22) stresses almost never inhibit their performance. Several writers on stress have looked for traits in people that help to protect them from stress (Copeland & Kirsch, 1995). For example, Maddi and Kobasa (1984) characterized the 'hardy executive' as resilient. Hardiness refers to the possession of commitment, control,

and challenge (as cited in Payne, 1988). It is possible that ADs fit this description.

Of the 13 selected tasks included on the survey, firing (M=4.0) was the only task considered by the athletic directors to be almost always stressful. While many skills, such as budgeting and fund raising, can be learned through education, firing an employee is a task that can not be taught and must only be experienced. In addition, every employee is unique; therefore, each firing of an employee is a different experience and may not get easier through experience. The 'human factor' plays a large role in the process and can be very taxing on a manager.

Though the ADs agreed that stress is usually evident in their jobs, they did not cite any specific organizational or individual stressor as almost always stressful. This may mean that it is the overall scope of responsibilities and demands on an AD, rather than specific stressors that cause high OS levels. It seems the administrators are confident in their qualifications to handle the overall stress; the lowest stressors were not understanding job expectations and requirements exceeding abilities or skills. This suggests that most ADs receive adequate training for their positions and also supports evidence that certain people may be more resilient to stress and therefore, capable of this occupation.

According to the demographic results, women perceive a slightly higher amount of OS than men. The highest stressor

was quantitative overload; other time-consuming tasks like firing and budget were also considered almost always stressful.

The perception of gender discrimination varied according to gender. Men did not think discrimination was stressful though women thought it was sometimes. It is possible that, as the majority group in athletic administration, men are much less aware of gender discrimination occurring in the workplace than women are. Because qualitative overload was not a stressor, it is evident that men and women are both confident in their abilities and skills as athletic directors.

Like both genders, all age groups studied rated firing as almost always stressful. Therefore, this task does not appear to get easier for managers with increased age. Quantitative overload, however, does seem to decrease in the older age groups, perhaps as ADs improve their time management skills, yet budgeting remains stressful for the two older groups. Budget demands change each year, and it becomes increasingly difficult to derive new fund sources and fund raising ideas. All age groups knew what was expected of them and, as would be expected, perceived less stress with increased age.

Married ADs had the lowest stress levels and fewest stressors of the three marital categories. Studies have suggested that greater marital satisfaction and adjustment is associated with increased job satisfaction and there are

positive correlations between positive moods at home and on the job (Cooper & Payne, 1988). In addition, spouses provide social support that can help individuals cope with job stress through supportive relationships. On the other hand, Cooper & Payne (1988) also reported that interviews with divorced and separated managers found that the majority described at least a few months of impaired job functioning, including poor concentration, motivational deficits, work absence and short tempers. These symptoms could lead to the increased stress levels as seen in this study. Some of the same interviewed managers did say divorce or separation seemed to energize them, leading to increased productivity; thus, they were able to work better under the increased stress as indicated in this study's results. Yet somehow, the same ADs in this study also admitted that job stress can inhibit their performance.

Public relations work for an administrator involves maintaining both a good relationship with the public and a positive image of the athletic program. Just as divorced and separated ADs in this study have had difficulty maintaining good relations with their personal relationships, they also find public relations to be stressful. The single and married ADs considered public relations as only sometimes stressful.

It is easy to understand why quantitative overload is stressful for ADs with children and not stressing for those without children at home. Like most working parents,

administrators face pressure to juggle many roles and a number of demands placed on them. Children living at home require frequent shifts in the family responsibilities. As children grow older, their lives become more complex and they continue to add to the parental role responsibilities, resulting in quantitative overload.

The most notable finding according to overall experience was that firing was the top stressor for each experience category. In fact, it was the only considerable stressor for the directors with over 25 years of experience. The low total mean stress score in this category is to be expected, but it is interesting that ADs with 20-24 years considered their jobs markedly higher in stress. This may be an indication of athletic directors with years of experience as high school ADs making the leap to college administration.

By looking at the number of years for the ADs in their current position, it is clear that an increase in experience at the same job results in a decrease of work stress. As with overall experience, firing was a major stressor for ADs regardless of the number of years at their current position.

The stressors reported by athletic directors differed much according to the schools' affiliation. NCAA directors perceived a greater number of stressors, and a higher stress level than NAIA and Independent ADs. Maintaining a competitive program is essential for NCAA directors if they hope to recruit top athletes and win competitions. Many

NCAA colleges, unlike the independent schools, are recognized and renowned simply because of their athletic teams. These institutions' athletic programs are often supported by income from their revenue sports. Also, the stress for recognition, success, and profit by these schools may cause increased politics in the decision-making process. Politics was not a stressor in independent schools like it was for the NCAA affiliations. Like most of the other demographic categories, firing was shown to be a major stressor for the NCAA and NAIA. However, independent schools did not deem this a stressing task. Because schools of independent affiliation have much smaller programs, it is likely there are fewer employees answering directly to the athletic director and therefore fewer firing situations for the AD.

Surprisingly, the highest levels of stress among the divisions were shown in Division III schools, with the lowest levels in Division I colleges. Division III schools are smaller than Division I and II schools, and usually have to strive to gain visibility for their athletic programs. Because this is important in order to recruit athletes, it may explain the additional stress on the Division III athletic directors.

NAIA Division II schools also had many more stressors and a much higher total mean stress score than NAIA Division I. This may be due to a smaller staff at the Division II schools. Though Division I schools are larger, they may

have more employees that can help with the most important and time-consuming tasks. In addition, Division II ADs in the NAIA may often hold a major coaching position, making time management even more of a problem. If the Division II ADs are unable to delegate some of these responsibilities, they could suffer even more burnout than athletic directors in the larger organizations. Division I directors may be required to have more experience before obtaining their position than Division II directors. Thus, the Division II ADs may not have received as much training for their positions as Division I ADs and desire additional opportunities to learn new skills. This is supported by the chi-square analysis that revealed higher stress levels for these stressors among Division II directors.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

Job responsibilities of athletic directors are continually increasing. This may cause higher levels of occupational stress, and as a result, poor health conditions (Copeland & Kirsch, 1995). Thus, there is a need to determine employees' perceptions of their work environments and to identify major work stressors in order to 'treat' them.

This study was designed to determine the effect of individual demographic information on the occupational stress levels of athletic directors, and their perceptions of stressful tasks and organizational and personal stressors. It was hypothesized that these factors would vary according to demographics.

Surveys were sent to 72 college athletic directors in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri and Wisconsin, with a response rate of 76.4% (n=55). The sample consisted of 54 Caucasians, and one Native American, including 39 men and 16 women.

The research design was a 45-item survey that assessed general perceptions of job stress, stress levels of selected tasks, macrostressors and microstressors, and demographic information. Respondents answered according to a five-point

Likert scale ranging from never to always. Statistical analysis was conducted using the Frequencies Program from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), and a chi-square analysis with .05 level of significance determined significant differences according to demography.

Conclusions

This study was conducted to identify the affects of varying demographic data on stress levels and perceived stressors. The following conclusions were drawn from this study:

General Perceptions of Job Stress

1. College ADs in the Midwest believe stress is almost always evident in their profession.
2. ADs feel that they recover quickly from stress.
3. As a whole, athletic administrators do not feel stress inhibits their job performance.
4. ADs believe that they have the skills and abilities for their job requirements.

Job Stressors

1. Firing is a major stressor for all athletic directors, regardless of demography.

2. Overall, meeting affirmative action guidelines is not considered to be stressful.
3. As a whole, Midwestern ADs do not think that the common organizational and individual stressors stress them.

Demographic Information

1. Women athletic directors have slightly higher stress levels and more stressors than male ADs. Male administrators do not perceive gender discrimination to be stressing, while it sometimes is for women administrators.
2. Stress decreases for ADs as they become older and also with increasing experience in the same position.
3. Divorced administrators are inhibited by work stress and have a significantly higher level of stress and many more specific stressors than single or married athletic directors.
4. ADs with children under the age of 18 at home find quantitative overload and conflicting demands to be stressing.
5. Directors with over 25 years of experience have significantly lower stress levels than those with less experience.
6. NCAA and NAIA ADs find trying to maintain competitive programs and budgeting to be stressful. ADs from schools with independent affiliations have much lower

stress levels and fewer stressors than NCAA and NAIA directors.

7. Division III directors may experience more stress than Division II and Division I directors.

Recommendations

The process and results of this study present the following recommendations: This study should be repeated using a seven-point Likert scale in order to determine a clearer significance in respondents' perceptions. This study should be done with a larger sample size in order to include more subjects with varying demographics, and the surveys could be sent to other regions as well.

Occupational stress levels are likely to increase or decrease according to organizational or personal factors. A measurement of OS at one point in time may not accurately reflect normal levels or perceived stressors. Therefore, this design may underestimate the relationships being explored. It would be worthwhile for future researchers interested in documenting OS levels to conduct longitudinal studies of subjects to follow the course of an individual's stress or burnout.

Also, it might help to better determine major causes of stress if ADs identified specifically what they perceive to cause stress given the tasks and stressors. Additional questions asking ADs to indicate other job responsibilities

(ex. coaching position) may be beneficial to a future study. Also, a demographic variable could be added to assess if the ADs are caregivers for elderly relatives. This responsibility may add to quantitative overload and affect stress levels as well.

The most significant finding in this study was the consistency of stressfulness for nearly all categories caused by firing. Firing is an obvious problem for employers, and according to this study, athletic directors have not been able to learn how to cope better with this difficult task. Evaluation procedures may need to be improved to increase employees' awareness of job expectations and requirements and increase communication between employees and supervisors. There is an obvious need for more training workshops or specialized programs focused on how to handle the situation of firing for employers.

The breakdown of demographics according to categories (ex. division, age) is found in Appendix D. Further analysis of this data may provide additional significant results.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY

I. GENERAL PERCEPTION OF ADMINISTRATION-RELATED STRESS

Please circle the appropriate number.

	1 NEVER	2 ALMOST NEVER	3 SOMETIMES	4 ALMOST ALWAYS	5 ALWAYS
1. Do you feel stress is evident in your profession?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Do you like job-related stressful situations?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Do you work better under job-related stress?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Do you recover quickly from job stress?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Do you feel job stress inhibits your job performance?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Do you feel non-job related stress inhibits your performance?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Do you feel work site programs aimed at stress reduction are (or might be) effective?	1	2	3	4	5

II. STRESS LEVELS OF SELECTED TASKS

Please read each statement and then ask yourself:
WHEN I THINK ABOUT MY JOB, TO WHAT DEGREE DOES THIS TASK CAUSE ME STRESS?

Please circle the appropriate number.

	1 NEVER	2 ALMOST NEVER	3 SOMETIMES	4 ALMOST ALWAYS	5 ALWAYS
8. Personal relations with personnel	1	2	3	4	5
9. Policy decision making	1	2	3	4	5
10. Budget demands	1	2	3	4	5
11. Program organization and development	1	2	3	4	5
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	1	2	3	4	5
13. Maintaining a competitive program	1	2	3	4	5
14. Completing task demands on time	1	2	3	4	5
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	1	2	3	4	5
16. Firing personnel	1	2	3	4	5
17. Public relations	1	2	3	4	5
18. Event Management	1	2	3	4	5
19. Fund raising	1	2	3	4	5
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	1	2	3	4	5

III. WORK-RELATED STRESSORS -

Please read these terms and then ask yourself:
WHEN I THINK ABOUT THE ORGANIZATION, TO WHAT DEGREE DO THESE CAUSE ME STRESS?

	1 NEVER	2 ALMOST NEVER	3 SOMETIMES	4 ALMOST ALWAYS	5 ALWAYS
21. Politics affecting organizational decisions	1	2	3	4	5
22. Lack of training and development opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
23. Lack of relationship between performance and rewards	1	2	3	4	5
24. Management not receptive to employee input	1	2	3	4	5
25. Assignments that are not challenging	1	2	3	4	5
26. Inadequate quality of supervision by superiors	1	2	3	4	5
27. Restrictive and confusing organizational structure	1	2	3	4	5
28. Inadequate flow of work in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
29. Gender discrimination in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5

Now please ask yourself:
WHEN I THINK ABOUT MY JOB, TO WHAT DEGREE DO THESE CAUSE ME STRESS?

30. Not understanding what is expected on the job	1	2	3	4	5
31. Conflicting demands or an unclear chain of command	1	2	3	4	5
32. Too great a volume of work for the alotted time	1	2	3	4	5
33. Job requirements exceed my ability or skill level	1	2	3	4	5
34. Lack of opportunities to learn new skills/techniques	1	2	3	4	5
35. Responsibility for employees/ accountability for their work	1	2	3	4	5
36. Pressure from unreasonable deadlines and time demands	1	2	3	4	5
37. General range of job and lack of variety and feedback	1	2	3	4	5
38. Technology in the work place	1	2	3	4	5

IV. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

It is important to obtain general demographic information of the sample in order to present more thorough, in-depth results.

Please circle the appropriate answer.

39. Which affiliation and division represents your institution?

1. NCAA — 1. Div. I
2. NAIA — 2. Div. II
3. other — 3. Div. III

_____

40. What is your age?

1. under 30
2. 30-39
3. 40-49
4. 50 and over

41. What is your gender?

1. Female
2. Male

42. What is your ethnic background?

1. Caucasian (White)
2. African American
3. Asian
4. Hispanic
5. Native American
6. Other- _____

43. What is your current marital status?

1. Single (never married
2. Single (divorced, separated or widowed)
3. Married

44. Do you have any children under the age of 18 living at home?

1. Yes
2. No

45. How many years have you worked in your current position?

_____

46. How many years have you worked as an athletic director?

_____

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTERS

Physical Education Department
Charleston, IL 61920-3099
217-581-2215

February 1998

Dear Athletic Director,

I am attempting to identify occupational stress levels of collegiate athletic directors and to determine the various causes of job stress. I expect to find significant differences in these levels and stressors according to various demographics. In order to compare gender differences, I have specifically targeted all women athletic directors in the Midwest. As a member of an elite group, your answers are essential to the study!

If you would complete and return the enclosed survey by March 31, I would appreciate it greatly. The survey is brief and should only take a few minutes to complete. No mention will be made of specific names and colleges, so all answers will be confidential.

The information gathered will help determine the major stress-causing tasks and responsibilities of athletic directors. The results may be used by organizations to develop stress management seminars/ work site programs or to assess existing programs. The information may also help employers to evaluate the qualifications and skills needed by those seeking an athletic director's position.

If you are interested in the results of this study, please contact us at 217/348-6486.

Thank you very much for your help in providing this important information!

Sincerely,

Jennifer R. Venzon
Graduate Assistant

Dr. Kevin Lasley
Professor

Physical Education Department
Charleston, IL 61920-3099
217-581-2215

February 1998

Dear Athletic Director,

I am attempting to identify occupational stress levels of collegiate athletic directors and to determine the various causes of job stress. If you would complete and return the enclosed survey by March 31, I would appreciate it. The survey is brief and should only take a few minutes to complete. All answers will remain confidential.

The information gathered will help determine the major stress-causing tasks and responsibilities of athletic directors. The results may be used by organizations to develop stress management seminars/ work site programs or to assess existing programs. The information may also help employers to evaluate the qualifications and skills needed by those seeking an athletic director's position.

If you are interested in the results of this study, please contact us at 217/348-6486.

Thank you very much for your help in providing this important information!

Sincerely,

Jennifer R. Venzon
Graduate Assistant

Dr. Kevin Lasley
Professor

APPENDIX C

REMINDER LETTER

EASTERN
ESTABLISHED 1895
ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

Physical Education Department
Charleston, IL 61920-3099
217-581-2215

March 1998

Dear Athletic Director,

I recently sent you a survey regarding occupational stress levels and your perceived stressors. Because I have not received a response, I am requested your help again. Your responses are very important to me, and I would appreciate it greatly if you would take a few minutes to complete the attached survey and return it by April 7. Of course, all answers will remain completely confidential; no specific names or schools will be mentioned in the results.

Again, the results may be used by organizations to develop stress management seminars/ work site programs or to assess existing programs. The information may also help employers to evaluate the qualifications and skills needed by those seeking an athletic director's position.

If you are interested in the results of this study, please contact us at 217/348-6486.

Thank you very much for your help in providing this important information!

Sincerely,

Jennifer R. Venzon
Graduate Assistant

Dr. Kevin Lasley
Professor

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC MEANS AND FREQUENCIES

	NCAA I(8)	NCAA II(9)	NCAA III(14)
1. Stress evident in profession	M= 4.00	M= 4.22	M= 3.79
2. Like job-related stressful situations	3.00	3.56	3.00
3. Work better underjob-related stress	3.00	3.67	3.14
4. Recover quickly from job stress	3.88	3.67	3.79
5. Job stress inhibits performanc	2.25	2.67	2.43
6. Non-job stress inhibits performance	2.75	1.78	2.71
7. Stress reduction programs are effective	3.00	2.89	2.86
8. Personal relations with personnel	3.13	3.11	3.07
9. Policy decision making	2.75	3.11	2.86
10. Budget demands	3.88	4.11	3.29
11. Program organization and development	2.63	2.89	2.93
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	3.25	3.11	2.57
13. Maintaining a competitive program	3.50	4.00	3.36
14. Completing task demands on time	2.75	3.11	3.50
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	2.87	2.78	2.36
16. Firing personnel	4.38	4.11	4.21
17. Public relations	2.38	3.00	3.00
18. Event Management	2.75	3.00	2.79
19. Fund raising	2.88	3.33	3.31
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	2.63	2.67	2.86
21. Politics affecting organization decisions	3.25	3.00	3.36
22. Lack of training and development opportunities	2.00	2.11	2.64
23. Lack of relationship b/t performance & rewards	2.63	3.00	2.93
24. Management not receptive to employees	2.50	2.56	2.71
25. Assignments are not challenging	2.00	1.78	2.64
26. Inadequate quality of supervision	1.88	2.11	2.50
27. Restrictive/confusing organizational structure	2.63	2.22	2.93
28. Inadequate flow of work in workplace	2.00	2.44	2.79
29. Gender discrimination in workplace	2.00	2.78	2.21
30. Role ambiguity	1.88	2.11	2.36
31. Role conflict	2.13	3.11	2.86
32. Quantitative overload	2.88	3.22	3.71
33. Qualitative overload	1.75	1.89	2.21
34. Lack of opportunities to learn new skills	2.00	2.33	2.79
35. Responsiblity for employees	2.63	3.22	3.36
36. Unreasonable deadlines/ time demands	2.87	2.44	3.07
37. General range of job	2.25	2.44	2.64
38. Technology in workplace	2.25	2.11	3.00
Mean Total (1-38)	103.13	109.66	112.29
Mean number of years in current job	6.75	7.22	9.71
Mean number of years overall as AD	9.25	9.78	11.93
Female	4	3	4
Male	4	6	10
Under 30 years old	0	0	0
30-39 years old	0	1	3
40-49 years old	5	4	3
Over 50 years old	3	4	8
Single	1	1	4
Single- Divorced, Separated, Widowed	1	1	1
Married	5	7	9
Children under 18 living at home (yes)	2	4	4

	NAIA I(5)	NAIA II(15)	INDEP(4)
1. Stress evident in profession	M= 3.60	M= 3.87	M= 3.00
2. Like job-related stressful situations	3.40	2.87	2.50
3. Work better underjob-related stress	3.00	3.07	3.00
4. Recover quickly from job stress	4.60	3.53	4.00
5. Job stress inhibits performanc	1.80	2.47	2.50
6. Non-job stress inhibits performance	2.00	2.67	2.00
7. Stress reduction programs are effective	2.80	2.87	2.67
8. Personal relations with personnel	2.60	3.07	2.75
9. Policy decision making	2.40	3.14	2.75
10. Budget demands	2.60	3.40	2.75
11. Program organization and development	2.00	2.60	2.25
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	2.00	2.67	1.75
13. Maintaining a competitive program	2.20	3.67	2.00
14. Completing task demands on time	2.20	3.20	2.75
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	2.00	2.47	1.50
16. Firing personnel	3.40	4.27	2.00
17. Public relations	1.60	2.93	1.75
18. Event Management	2.20	2.93	2.50
19. Fund raising	3.00	3.29	2.25
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	2.40	2.80	1.75
21. Politics affecting organization decisions	2.60	3.13	1.50
22. Lack of training and development opportunities	2.20	2.73	1.75
23. Lack of relationship b/t performance & rewards	2.40	2.93	1.75
24. Management not receptive to employees	2.60	2.93	1.50
25. Assignments are not challenging	2.00	2.27	1.50
26. Inadequate quality of supervision	1.60	2.87	1.25
27. Restrictive/confusing organizational structure	3.20	2.60	2.00
28. Inadequate flow of work in workplace	2.00	2.60	1.75
29. Gender discrimination in workplace	1.80	2.13	1.00
30. Role ambiguity	1.40	2.20	1.75
31. Role conflict	2.20	2.53	2.00
32. Quantitative overload	2.40	3.93	3.00
33. Qualitative overload	1.20	2.20	1.75
34. Lack of opportunities to learn new skills	2.00	2.40	2.25
35. Responsiblity for employees	2.40	2.80	2.50
36. Unreasonable deadlines/ time demands	1.60	2.73	2.00
37. General range of job	1.60	2.47	1.75
38. Technology in workplace	2.40	2.60	2.00
Mean Total (1-38)	89.40	109.40	80.75
Mean number of years in current job	6.60	10.47	8.67
Mean number of years overall as AD	10.80	11.13	10.33
Female	1	4	0
Male	4	11	4
Under 30 years old	0	0	2
30-39 years old	0	4	0
40-49 years old	2	7	1
Over 50 years old	3	4	1
Single	1	3	0
Single- Divorced, Separated, Widowed	0	0	0
Married	4	11	4
Children under 18 living at home (yes)	1	9	2

	30-39(8)	40-49(22)	50 & over(23)
1. Stress evident in profession	M= 3.62	M= 3.95	M= 3.87
2. Like job-related stressful situations	2.63	3.32	3.04
3. Work better underjob-related stress	3.00	3.23	3.22
4. Recover quickly from job stress	3.50	3.59	4.09
5. Job stress inhibits performanc	2.38	2.64	2.17
6. Non-job stress inhibits performance	2.50	2.64	2.26
7. Stress reduction programs are effective	2.88	3.00	2.78
8. Personal relations with personnel	2.63	3.00	3.17
9. Policy decision making	2.75	3.05	2.83
10. Budget demands	3.13	3.50	3.52
11. Program organization and development	2.88	2.59	2.65
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	2.00	3.00	2.70
13. Maintaining a competitive program	3.38	3.45	3.39
14. Completing task demands on time	3.38	3.09	3.00
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	2.25	2.68	2.39
16. Firing personnel	4.50	3.86	4.13
17. Public relations	3.00	2.82	2.52
18. Event Management	2.87	2.95	2.65
19. Fund raising	3.43	3.09	3.18
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	2.62	2.86	2.57
21. Politics affecting organization decisions	3.25	3.18	2.91
22. Lack of training and development opportunities	2.63	2.41	2.35
23. Lack of relationship b/t performance & rewards	3.25	2.64	2.87
24. Management not receptive to employees	3.00	2.36	2.87
25. Assignments are not challenging	2.50	2.05	2.26
26. Inadequate quality of supervision	2.75	2.27	2.22
27. Restrictive/confusing organizational structure	2.75	2.77	2.48
28. Inadequate flow of work in workplace	2.63	2.36	2.43
29. Gender discrimination in workplace	2.13	2.27	2.09
30. Role ambiguity	2.50	1.77	2.17
31. Role conflict	2.50	2.86	2.35
32. Quantitative overload	3.75	3.55	3.17
33. Qualitative overload	2.00	1.77	2.13
34. Lack of opportunities to learn new skills	2.50	2.45	2.30
35. Responsiblity for employees	3.13	2.91	2.91
36. Unreasonable deadlines/ time demands	2.88	2.64	2.65
37. General range of job	2.62	2.45	2.22
38. Technology in workplace	2.88	2.23	2.61
Mean Total (1-38)	108.50	107.00	105.00
Mean number of years in current job	4.25	5.41	13.78
Mean number of years overall as AD	6.00	8.59	14.91
NCAA I	0	5	3
NCAA II	1	4	4
NCAA III	3	3	8
NAIA I	0	2	3
NAIA II	4	7	4
Independent	0	1	1
Female	5	6	5
Male	3	16	18
Single	4	3	3
Single- Divorced, Separated, Widowed	0	2	2
Married	4	16	18
Children under 18 living at home (yes)	4	12	4

	WOMEN (16)	MEN (39)
1. Stress evident in profession	M= 4.00	M= 3.77
2. Like job-related stressful situations	3.00	3.08
3. Work better underjob-related stress	3.12	3.18
4. Recover quickly from job stress	3.62	3.87
5. Job stress inhibits performanc	2.56	2.33
6. Non-job stress inhibits performance	2.44	2.44
7. Stress reduction programs are effective	3.00	2.82
8. Personal relations with personnel	2.69	3.15
9. Policy decision making	3.00	2.87
10. Budget demands	3.63	3.36
11. Program organization and development	2.81	2.59
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	2.56	2.72
13. Maintaining a competitive program	3.63	3.26
14. Completing task demands on time	2.94	3.13
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	2.25	2.51
16. Firing personnel	3.75	4.10
17. Public relations	2.75	2.64
18. Event Management	2.75	2.79
19. Fund raising	3.33	3.05
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	2.69	2.64
21. Politics affecting organization decisions	3.19	2.95
22. Lack of training and development opportunities	2.44	2.36
23. Lack of relationship b/t performance & rewards	3.00	2.67
24. Management not receptive to employees	2.50	2.67
25. Assignments are not challenging	2.13	2.18
26. Inadequate quality of supervision	2.31	2.26
27. Restrictive and confusing organizational structure	2.63	2.64
28. Inadequate flow of work in workplace	2.13	2.54
29. Gender discrimination in workplace	2.56	1.95
30. Role ambiguity	2.00	2.10
31. Role conflict	2.56	2.59
32. Quantitative overload	3.88	3.21
33. Qualitative overload	1.94	1.97
34. Lack of opportunities to learn new skills	2.19	2.46
35. Responsiblity for employees	2.94	2.92
36. Unreasonable deadlines/ time demands	2.69	2.62
37. General range of job	2.44	2.31
38. Tecnology in workplace	2.63	2.46
Mean Total (1-38)	106.44	104.92
Mean number of years in current job	8.56	8.79
Mean number of years overall as AD	10.06	11.05
NCAA I	4	4
NCAA II	3	6
NCAA III	4	10
NAIA I	1	4
NAIA II	4	11
Independent	0	4
Under 30 years old	0	2
30-39 years old	5	3
40-49 years old	6	16
Over 50 years old	5	18
Single	3	7
Single- Divorced, Separated, Widowed	2	2
Married	10	30
Children under 18 living at home (yes)	2	19

	SINGLE(10)	DIV/SEP(4)	MARRIED(40)
1. Stress evident in profession	M= 3.90	M= 4.50	M= 3.75
2. Like job-related stressful situations	2.80	3.25	3.10
3. Work better underjob-related stress	3.00	3.75	3.15
4. Recover quickly from job stress	3.70	3.25	3.87
5. Job stress inhibits performanc	2.60	3.50	2.27
6. Non-job stress inhibits performance	2.30	3.00	2.40
7. Stress reduction programs are effective	3.10	3.25	2.79
8. Personal relations with personnel	2.40	2.75	3.20
9. Policy decision making	2.90	3.25	2.87
10. Budget demands	3.40	4.25	3.37
11. Program organization and development	2.70	3.00	2.62
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	2.30	3.50	2.68
13. Maintaining a competitive program	3.50	3.50	3.32
14. Completing task demands on time	2.90	3.00	3.15
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	2.10	2.75	2.48
16. Firing personnel	3.90	4.00	4.03
17. Public relations	2.70	3.75	2.58
18. Event Management	2.50	3.25	2.80
19. Fund raising	3.20	3.75	3.05
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	3.00	3.75	2.50
21. Politics affecting organization decisions	2.90	4.00	2.97
22. Lack of training and development opportunities	2.60	2.75	2.30
23. Lack of relationship b/t performance & rewards	3.10	2.75	2.70
24. Management not receptive to employees	2.80	2.25	2.63
25. Assignments are not challenging	2.40	1.75	2.15
26. Inadequate quality of supervision	2.30	2.00	2.30
27. Restrictive and confusing organizational structure	2.70	2.50	2.65
28. Inadequate flow of work in workplace	2.30	1.75	2.53
29. Gender discrimination in workplace	2.20	2.75	2.03
30. Role ambiguity	2.10	2.00	2.07
31. Role conflict	2.20	3.25	2.63
32. Quantitative overload	3.90	3.50	3.28
33. Qualitative overload	2.00	1.25	2.02
34. Lack of opportunities to learn new skills	2.50	2.25	2.38
35. Responsiblity for employees	2.70	3.50	2.95
36. Unreasonable deadlines/ time demands	2.80	2.25	2.65
37. General range of job	2.40	2.75	2.30
38. Technology in workplace	2.90	2.25	2.45
Mean Total (1-38)	105.70	114.50	104.67
Mean number of years in current job	8.10	7.50	9.15
Mean number of years overall as AD	8.20	12.75	11.10
NCAA I	1	1	5
NCAA II	1	1	7
NCAA III	4	1	9
NAIA I	1	0	4
NAIA II	3	1	11
Independent	0	0	4
Under 30 years old	0	0	2
30-39 years old	4	0	4
40-49 years old	3	2	16
Over 50 years old	3	2	18
Children under 18 living at home	0	2	19

	KIDS(21)	NO KIDS(33)
1. Stress evident in profession	M= 3.76	M= 3.88
2. Like job-related stressful situations	3.00	3.09
3. Work better underjob-related stress	3.24	3.12
4. Recover quickly from job stress	3.62	3.91
5. Job stress inhibits performanc	2.52	2.36
6. Non-job stress inhibits performance	2.62	2.30
7. Stress reduction programs are effective	2.85	2.91
8. Personal relations with personnel	3.10	2.97
9. Policy decision making	2.86	2.94
10. Budget demands	3.43	3.45
11. Program organization and development	2.57	2.73
12. Meeting gender equity guidelines	2.67	2.67
13. Maintaining a competitive program	3.38	3.36
14. Completing task demands on time	3.14	3.06
15. Meeting affirmative action guidelines	2.43	2.42
16. Firing personnel	4.14	3.91
17. Public relations	2.76	2.64
18. Event Management	2.71	2.82
19. Fund raising	3.25	3.06
20. Compiling NCAA/NAIA data	2.57	2.76
21. Politics affecting organization decisions	3.10	3.00
22. Lack of training and development opportunities	2.52	2.30
23. Lack of relationship b/t performance & rewards	2.95	2.67
24. Management not receptive to employees	2.67	2.61
25. Assignments are not challenging	2.14	2.18
26. Inadequate quality of supervision	2.43	2.18
27. Restrictive and confusing organizational structure	2.67	2.64
28. Inadequate flow of work in workplace	2.52	2.36
29. Gender discrimination in workplace	2.10	2.12
30. Role ambiguity	2.24	1.97
31. Role conflict	3.00	2.33
32. Quantitative overload	3.52	3.33
33. Qualitative overload	2.05	1.91
34. Lack of opportunities to learn new skills	2.52	2.30
35. Responsiblity for employees	3.05	2.88
36. Unreasonable deadlines/ time demands	2.67	2.64
37. General range of job	2.43	2.30
38. Technology in workplace	2.52	2.52
Mean Total (1-38)	107.43	104.42
Mean number of years in current job	7.30	9.76
Mean number of years overall as AD	10.30	10.91
NCAA I	2	5
NCAA II	4	4
NCAA III	4	11
NAIA I	1	4
NAIA II	9	6
Independent	2	2
Under 30 years old	1	1
30-39 years old	4	4
40-49 years old	12	9
Over 50 years old	4	19
Single	0	10
Single- Divorced, Separated, Widowed	2	2
Married	19	21